Rural Crime Research: An Overview of Victimization And Offender Studies

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INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this paper is to review the status of rural crime research in the United States. It will seek to do two things: highlight completed or on-going rural crime research, and discuss issues of importance to the conduct of this research. These two dimensions to the paper will be discussed relative to two major types of rural sociological research: victimization patterns of the rural population, and studies of the rural offender.

VICTIMIZATION RESEARCH

The victimization survey represents a data collection procedure used to estimate the extent of crime within a specified geographic area, by means of a representative sample of the population, from whom information about specific criminal incidents within a specified time frame are gathered. One of the major advantages of the victimization survey over official police statistics is the researcher's ability to measure crime events which are not reported to law enforcement by citizens (Biderman, 1974).

One final note on victimization research is necessary. Generally, victimization rates are reported as annual rates, and unless otherwise indicated, all studies reviewed below use a 12 month referent period.

Victimization research came rapidly into vogue during the mid-1960's, and it was not long thereafter that a victim study was conducted in what must be considered a marginally urban environment. Beran and Allen (1974) conducted a victim study in a small midwestern town (pop. 11,250), located in a county of about 30,000 people with a largely agriculturally-based economy. Although the authors failed to report the extent of crime occurring, they did note two findings which have been, by and large, repeatedly discerned by successive rural victim research. First, and to quote Beran and Allen (1974:392): "The bulk of Lincoln's crime problem is vandalism, petty larceny, and alcohol-related offenses. It is therefore not too surprising that much of the town's crime is juvenile in origin." Second, the authors found a high rate of unreported crime (about 50 percent of all incidents reported by respondents in the survey).

Although rural crime rates have risen rapidly, and perhaps it was only a matter of time before criminology would shift its focus to the comparative study of crime, both urban and rural, the advent of the victimization study provided a research tool accessible to the non-criminology "fraternity." The focus of victimization research (i.e., the victim) is radically different from the predominant and traditional focus of criminology (i.e., the offender). Although the sub-field of victimology has grown to become an accepted arena for criminology, a victim-oriented approach also has allowed the applied, social problem orientation (Cuber et al., 1964) of rural sociology to enter into the study of rural crime. During the 1970's, most of the pioneering efforts relative to the sociological study of rural crime have in fact come within the field of rural sociology. Furthermore, research efforts currently underway

indicate expanded participation of rural sociology in rural victimization research.

The most influential studies of rural crime during the 1970's were conducted by G. Howard Phillips, founder and former Director of the National Rural Crime Prevention Center at The Ohio State University. First funded by the Ohio Farm Bureau Federation, four separate studies were completed, two of which are germane to the topic of victimization. The first was an attitude survey of farm bureau council members in which Phillips (1974:221) found that the most often mentioned reasons for the increase in rural crime was laxity of courts, lack of law enforcement, laxity and breakdown of family life, and population increase.

The Farm Bureau Council study served as a preliminary investigation in order to design a state-wide rural victimization study, the results of which were published in 1975. Phillips' (1975) conclusions were similar to the findings of Beran and Allen (1974) in that: (1) vandalism and larceny were the most frequently occurring crimes to rural residents; and (2) slightly less than one-half of all crime events were reported to law enforcement officials.

Phillips research served as the major catalyst to a number of rural victimization research reports and studies. In part, these included a number of theses and dissertations by students at The Ohio State University from the data generated through victim studies (see Flickinger, 1976; Heller, 1977; Kreps, 1977; Dada, 1979; Wurschmidt, 1980; Cox, 1981, and Steiner, 1981).

At the same time, studies in several other states were begun. One of the first to focus on farm crime was completed by Bean and Lawrence (1978) in West Virginia. The study reported on results of interviews with 100 farm operators in Hampshire County. They found larceny, trespassing, and vandalism to be the most frequently occurring crimes. However, arson to farm buildings was the most costly.

Smith (1979) conducted a victim study among 481 rural residents in a predominantly agricultural county of northwestern Indiana. This study, funded under a fellowship program of the National Institute of Justice and partly funded by the Indiana Agricultural Experiment Station, found a pattern of crime strikingly similar to Beran and Allen (1974) and Phillips (1975). Vandalism was the most frequently occurring type of crime, with household-related larceny second. However, perhaps was the greatest contribution of Smith's study was that he directly modeled the victimization section of the survey instrument on the classification scheme and wording form of the National Crime Study (National Research Council, 1976). In addition, the crime data collected by Smith was put into a format directly comparable with the victimization rates calculated from the National Crime Study. One interesting finding from this comparison was that the "forcible entry burglary" rate for this agricultural community was nearly equivalent to the rate found in SMSA's of one million and more persons by the National Crime Study (Smith and Donnermeyer, 1979).

Donnermeyer (1982, forthcoming) replicated the efforts of Phillips, Smith, and the National Crime study under the same Indiana Agricultural Experiment Station project mentioned above in Pike County, which is located

in the coal region of southwestern Indiana. The rate of vandalism and burglary were very similar to the results found by Smith (1979), however, personal larceny rates were substantially lower (Donnermeyer, 1982 forthcoming).

Several other state victim studies have been completed including Texas (Moore and Teske, 1981), Missouri (Galliher et al., 1980), and South Dakota (Dahlin et al., 1981). Moore and Teske (1981) found that 19 percent of rural Texans participating in their study experienced at least one victimization. Nearly two-thirds of all incidents reported were either larceny (34.9 percent) or vandalism (30.0 percent). Galliher et al. (1980) estimated that 23 percent of rural Missourians annually experienced one or more types of crime, and again, larceny and vandalism were the two most frequently reported crime types. In a follow-up rural-suburban crime study conducted within a central Missouri county, Holik et al. (1982) found crime affecting 16 percent of all households, with larceny and vandalism once again representing the leading crimes. Finally, Dahlin et al. (1981) conducted a state-wide study in South Dakota and found that urban victimization rates were higher for each crime type than the rural rates. However, within the rural sample, victimization rates generally were higher among "rural nontown" persons than the "rural town" population. Uniformly, for all three population categories, vandalism and theft were the first and second most frequently occurring crime types respectively.

In addition to the study of rural residents as victims, several studies have been conducted relative to rural businesses and public property. Cox (1982) completed a thesis on the pattern of crime to farm retail markets (roadside farm markets and U-Pick operations). The results indicated that nearly three-fourths of farm retail markets experienced crime, and that may be an underestimate, since it is impossible to accurately determine in a victim survey the rate of shoplifing and employee theft. The previously cited research by Smith (1979) and Galliher et al. (1980) also contained small samples of rural businesses. Although neither one represents an in-depth look at crime and rural businesses, both are valuable as pioneer research efforts, and should be used to design more extensive studies in the future.

The farm retail study, plus another on the extent and cost of road-sign vandalism and theft (Donnermeyer, et al., 1980) represent two studies recently undertaken as part of an Ohio Agricultural Research and Development Center funded rural crime project by the National Rural Crime Prevention Center. One additional study also has been completed under this project. It is a replication of Phillips (1975) state-wide rural victim. The study is significant in two ways. First, the new state-wide victim study utilized the identical sampling of the earlier study (Phillips, 1975). Together, these two Ohio victim studies represent the first longitudinal data base available on the phenomenon of rural crime. Second, the new study focused on the crime prevention features of the rural home as well as the security habits or behavior of rural people, and attempted to develop these in a way that a direct correlation (or lack thereof) could be made between victimization probabilities and security levels. At present, there exists only scanty research available, either urban or rural, in the area of crime prevention (see especially Repetto, 1974).

Finally, a review of rural victim research cannot be complete without

reference to several other studies. Kelly and Burdge (1979) included two victimization items on a recently completed state-wide attitudinal survey of Illinois. This resulted in the completion of a report which compared victim ratios on a rural-urban continuum (from the Chicago sub-sample to open-country respondents). The office of Criminal Justice Programs (1978), State of Michigan, has annually carried out a citizens' attitude survey about crime, and similar to the Illinois study, included two generalized victimization questions. Also similar to the Illinois study, the statistical reports from the Michigan study provide comparative rates of victimization by place of residence (from Detroit to the open-county). Adamchek and Wade (1981), using FBI Uniform Crime Report statistics and Bureau of Census information examined the relationship between population change and crime rates for rural Kansas.

RESEARCH ISSUES -- RURAL VICTIMIZATION RESEARCH

At present there are a number of State Agricultural Experiment Station and other projects which have been proposed or recently funded. Significant among these is the work of: (1) Carter and Beaulieu, Rural Development Center, University of Florida -- these researchers are gearing up for a state-wide rural victim study in Florida, and have received funding for the project from the Southern Regional Development Center; (2) Roebuck and Cosby, Department of Sociology, Mississippi State University -- the draft of a Mississippi State Agricultural Experiment Station project has been partly completed, with actual data collection to begin probably during late '82 or 1983; (3) Southern Regional Development Center -- extension/research interest network has been organized under the leadership of Carter and Beaulieu, University of Florida; (4) North Central Regional Development Center -- extension/research interest network has been approved and will be organized and chaired by Donnermeyer, National Rural Crime Prevention Center; and (5) The National Rural Crime Prevention Center has received two grants, including one from the National Institute of Justice to conduct a study of crime to farm operations (anticpated sample size = 1,200), and one from the Andrus Foundation of the National Retired Teachers' Association/American Association of Retired Persons to prepare a report on the extent and fear of crime to the rural elderly.

These five projects were briefly described to illustrate that, if anything, rural victim research will continue to increase in popularity, particularly in the field of rural sociology. As such, it is timely to discuss several issues of importance to the conduct of rural victim research.

One of the most important issues is that of the commonality of research designs. Given the vast resources which have been applied to the National Crime Study, as well as the already completed rural victim studies mentioned above, there exists a unique opportunity for future research in this area to be designed in a way that allows direct and valid comparisons on the extent and nature of rural crime between different states or study areas. There are three major areas where this is especially critical: (1) the wording format of crime types; (2) sampling procedures; and (3) data collection techniques. These issues are discussed in detail by the National Research Council's (1976) review of the National Crime Study. Research interest networks, such as the two mentioned above, can prove to be invaluable forums for the researcher. With increased comparability forthcoming, the opportunity to delineate tate and regional variations in the extent and nature of rural crime in merica will be possible in the next several years.

A second research issue, and one that will become increasingly important, is the need for longitudinal studies of victimization patterns to the rural population. Crime rates have increased substantially for the rural population since World War II, and many of the major social changes which have affected the structure and quality of life of rural American society in other areas, may also be hypothesized as directly affecting victimization probabilities. For instance, do rural communities experiencing population growth likewise experience higher per capita increases in crime (Adamchek and Wade, 1981).

Rural victim research of specific sub-sectors of the rural population is increasingly needed, and this represents a third research issue. For instance, other than the study by Bean and Lawrence (1978), and the recently funded project of the National Rural Crime Prevention Center, "agri-crime" is a nearly neglected topic, yet one that would appear to have an excellent chance of receiving support from the private, as well as the public, sector. The crime experiences of Ohio's farmers are probably quite different from the citrus growers of Florida and the ranchers of Wyoming. Other important rural population sub-sectors include the elderly, rural businesses (ranging from lumber companies, to farm implement dealers), rural public property (ranging from recreation and park areas to public utilities), and rural institutions (from Grange Halls to churches).

A fourth and final research issue to be discussed in this paper concerns the relative effectiveness of home and farm security measures in reducing victimization probabilities. Environmental design theory, as developed by Newman (1972), Gardiner (1978) and others suggests that environmental conditions significantly affect crime rates. Obviously, the physical environment and human ecological patterns vary widely throughout the rural United States, and these conditions may affect not only the vulnerability of the rural population, but also the ability of traditional target-hardening techniques (i.e., lights, locks, alarms, and dogs) to protect rural citizens.

RURAL OFFENDER RESEARCH

Offender research represents the more traditional orientation of criminology. This author must confess that he is far more familiar with rural victim research than with rural offender studies. For this reason, the review of rural offender studies below is far from complete. However, it is a no less important area for research among rural sociologists than a focus on the rural victim. This is the case for two basic reasons. First, research on the rural offender may do much to challenge established criminological conceptions of factors affecting criminal behavior. Second, the ultimate form of crime prevention is not the improvement of locks, lights, alarms and other kinds of target-hardening techniques, but rather the socialization of persons who are not motivated to engage in illegal types of behavior. Although this may sound extremely idealistic, there are at present many educators, professional and adult volunteer workers in youth programs, church and community leaders, and parents who are searching for answers as to why rural youth (in particular) closely parallel their urban cousins with respect to the extent of their participation in behaviors which are regarded by the dominant adult culture in American society as illegal or somehow deviant.

One of the earliest statements on the rural offender may be found in A SYSTEMATIC SOURCEBOOK IN RURAL SOCIOLOGY (Sorokin, Zimmerman and Galpin, 1930). Synthesizing the then available research on rural crime

within the United States and fourteen other countries (mostly European), they concluded that the rural population tends generally to be more law-abiding, however, among the "agricultural class," criminality was more likely exhibited in terms of violent crime. Melvin and Smith (1938:84) observed the "wholesome use of leisure time plays an important role in preventing crime and delinquency" among rural youth.

In the past three decades, studies on crime and delinquency in rural areas have been limited. Only eight articles related to the subject of rural offenders have appeared in RURAL SOCIOLOGY since its inception in 1936. The first article was reported by Smith (1937) in a study of delinquency in Kansas. Smith found that where the population size of the surrounding counties was smaller than the local community, the size of delinquency rates was inversely related to distance from urban communities. A second article appeared in 1939, the result of a study of four rural counties in Massachusetts. In this study Jones (1939) observed that nearly 60 percent of crimes committed in a rural community were perpetrated by nonresidents. Additionally, he reported that although approximately 50 percent of all offenders were urban residents, these same urban residents accounted for more than 67 percent of all property offenses.

Rural-urban aspects of adult probation in Wisconsin were studied by Gillin and Hill (1940). Examined were the successes or failures of farm, rural nonfarm, and urban probationers relative to selected social characteristics, history of previous arrests, and factors associated with the probation period. Violation rates were found to be lower for farm probationers, regardless of the length of maximum sentences. The "rural way of life" was viewed as being more conducive to maintaining probation rules.

A fourth article appeared in 1942 authored by Useem and Waldner. Examined were crime patterns in a rural South Dakota county over the period from 1890 to 1940. They reported that crime rates in town were higher than among farmers. Additionally, they concluded that criminal activity did not involve organized gangs, and that the rural offender operated alone more often than urban offenders. Lagey, in a study of the ecology of crime in rural Pennsylvania, tenatively concluded that rural delinquency was less related to ecological variables than urban delinquency (1957). He hypothesized that social, rather than ecological, variables were more important in explaining rural delinquency.

Steffensmeier and Jordan examined data from the FBI's Uniform Crime Reports relative to patterns of female offenders. They concluded that the rate of crimes committed by rural females from 1962 through 1975 was increasing, but that females living in rural places continued to be responsible for fewer crimes than females from urban places.

The last two of the eight articles appeared in 1980. Bankston and Allen (1980) tested the relative effects of subcultural and socio-demographic factors associated with lethal violence in rural parishes of Louisiana were contingent upon both a "cultural tradition" of violence, and the structural conditions of income inequality and high levels of proverty. Fischer (1980) compared violent crime rates of different sized communities in California. He found that the difference in violent crime rates between urgan and rural California have increased between 1955 and 1975. Although offering no specific explanation for this trend, Fischer

does suggest that rural-urban differentials may be understood within the framework of a cyclical diffusion model by which cultural norms spread from urban centers to the hinterlands.

Few specialists in the field of criminology have given more than passing reference to the rural offender. However, Clinard (1942, 1944) did observe that rural offenders do not manifest characteristics generally associated with the chronic criminal social types which were thought to be generated by the urban environment, such as: (A) an early start in criminal behavior; (B) progressive knowledge of criminal techniques and crime in general; (C) the use of crime as the sole means of support; and (D) the development of the self-concept of being criminal. Lentz (1956) studied youth at state institutions in Wisconsin and found that rural males were more likely institutionalized for lesser offenses such as chronic misconduct and petty theft, and less likely for more serious crimes such as auto theft and grand larceny. Clark and Wenninger (1962), Felhusen et al., (1965), and Hartung (1965) also made important contributions to the study of the rural offender. More recently, two professional papers on rural delinquency were delivered at the 1976 annual meeting of the American Society of Criminology (see Ball, and Thilmony and McDonald).

The literature cited above, as well as studies by Polk (1969) in Oregon and Phillips (1976a), Barber (1976), and Bartlett (1976) in Ohio reveals a consistent set of characteristics which comprise the rural offender: single, male, less than 25 years of age, and a resident of the local community.

Nearly all of the studies reviewed thus far are based upon official statistics (i.e., arrest records). A different method for studying the offender is the self-report method, which goes directly to the offender to measure criminal behavior irregardless of whether the offender has ever been apprehended. Two self-report studies of involvement in vandalism by rural youth determined that a slight majority have committed one or more acts of property destruction (Donnermeyer and Phillips, 1982 forthcoming). In both studies, it is found that the site for approximately 75 percent of the most recent acts of vandalism committed by these rural youth was in their county of residence. The predominant motivation for rural youth participation in vandalism was "for kicks." Vandalism was perceived as a game or contest, and was characterized by Donnermeyer and Phillips as "normatively acceptable" behavior among young people residing in rural areas.

These findings suggest that a great deal of the rural crime problem is "local" in nature, and that the informal social control mechanisms operative through such traditional rural insititutions as the family, school, and church are today less influential in maintaining lawful behavior within the rural population, especially rural youth. For instance, research by McIntosh et al., 1981, Napier and Pratt (1982 forthcoming), Natalino (1982, forthcoming), Miller (1982, forthcoming) discovered that rural high school aged students were comparable to their urban counterparts in frequency of drug usage.

RESEARCH ISSUES -- RURAL OFFENDER RESEARCH

One of the major issues associated with offender research is that of validity, that is, what is it that arrest records and self-report studies measure. Arrest records, such as those found in the FBI's Uniform Crime

Reports trace several major problems. The first and most basic issue is that a "first offender," as the criminal justice system euphemistically labels persons arrested for the first time, should more accurately be described as "first time caught." An examination of arrests rates between urban and rural law enforcement are not measures of crime volume per se, but in part of police activity and in part of the effectiveness of law enforcement. A second major problem with arrests rates is the variability between jurisdictions and over time in laws, hence reducing the value of cross-sectional and comparative analyses of arrest records. Finally, a third major problem with arrest records is the discretionary patterns of law enforcement, that is, the decision-making process by which police agencies determine that an arrest should be made. The decision to make an arrest often varies according to the characteristics of the offender, characteristics of the victim, and the victim-offender relationship as perceived by the officer.

Self-report offender studies likewise have significant problems. First, self-report measures are dependent upon the integrity of the respondent and the respondent's ability to recall relevant incidents and details. Of course, all survey research is susceptible to the veracity of the respondent. However, the danger is especially acute with self-report studies among youth who may be motivated to embellish their involvement in some illegal activities, or conceal their involvement in other activities.

A second major problem with self-report offender studies, and perhaps the more serious, is that they are not systematic. At this point in time, self-report rural offender studies represent an "accidental" collection of case studies. For instance, the two vandalism studies by Donnermeyer and Phillips (1982, forthcoming) involved the sophomore class of three rural high schools in three widely different regions of Ohio, and the junior class of two high schools from one county in Southwestern Indiana. Future self-report studies need to go beyond this type of case study approach. For instance, future research on rural youth participation in vandalism could be improved in several ways by utilizing designs which allow for: (1) comparative analyses of grade cohorts, such as 6th graders versus 9th graders etc.; and (2) analyses of a single grade cohort over-time, that is, as a class advances from the elementary level to junior and senior high levels.

A final research issue which needs to be mentioned is that of the development of theoretical models to explain delinquent behavior by rural youth. Criminological theories, such as social control, peer sub-culture, differential association, differential identification, and others are highly suggestive theories, and fit quite well with the "social problems" and social change orientations of rural sociology. However, criminology has largely failed to expand these theories to examine rural youth participation in illegal behavior or the changes in rural society which might account for the so-called increase of rural juvenile delinquency during the sixties and seventies.

CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this paper was to review the current status of rural victim and offender studies, and to discuss several issues of importance to the conduct of future research endeavors in these areas. Rural crime has emerged in the past several years as a new specialty area within rural sociology, and its promises to be one that will continue to grow in

popularity. Through regional interest networks, such as those sponsored by the Rural Development Centers of the Southern and Northern Central states, individual scholars will be able to build constructively upon the past efforts of others.

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The Title XII University Strengthening Program: Its First Two Years

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Introduction.

The Title XII amendment to the Foreign Assistance Act of 1975, commonly known as the Humphrey-Findley Amendment, was designed to integrate more closely American land grant and similar universities into USAID's overseas technical assistance activities. This act was premised on the assumption that the wealth of knowledge stored in our land grant universities could be of great assistance in promoting increased agricultural production and rural development overseas, much as it had done so here in the U.S. The Act foresaw greater university participation in AID research, institution building and technical assistance projects.

Part of the Title XII Amendment mandated AID to finance a program which was designed to strengthen the universities' ability to participate in projects overseas. The logic of this program is that knowledge in these universities is not directly transferable, but rather only can be effectively used overseas if it is adapted to LDC contexts through on-site research and through provision of necessary language and other cultural accoutrements to university faculty who will be working overseas. The program has come to be known as the Title XII Strengthening Grant Program.

Objective.

In this paper we will give a brief overview of the nature and scope of the program. Major activities in the program and its relative emphasis on different subject matters, geographic regions, and broader university objectives will be highlighted.

Program Overview and Data Sources.

Currently, there are 53 universities with individual strengthening grants from AID, 72% of which are land grant universities. They include both 1862

and 1890 universities. They represent a wide range of prior experience with AID and vary by size. Approximately 50% have had important previous international contract experience. The majority of these are large non-minority, land grant institutions and have continuing AID contracts. Forty-two percent have less than 15,000 students enrolled while only 12% have more than 45,000 students enrolled.

Data used to classify the major program activities are from several sources.1/ They include 50 proposals submitted by universities prior to June, 1981, all annual reports from these institutions, and files containing information on travel funded by the program which are maintained by the Title XII Support Office, Bureau of Science and Technology. These data were supplemented by information gained from extensive interviews with program managers at approximately half of the universities and with AID personnel.

The program began in July, 1979. Most universities received $100,000 grants from AID, renewable up to five years. A few universities received greater amounts because of their high volume of previous AID business. The two largest grants were to Michigan State University -- $300,000 -- and to Texas A & M University -- $208,000. Universities are required to cost share at least half of the program, that is, they must at least match this amount with funds from non-federal sources. Minority institutions do not have to match the AID grants for the first 5 years. After 5 years, universities are eligible to receive up to 10% of their average of AID contracts for the 3 previous years.

1/ Data presented in this paper are aggregated from these various sources.

Program Focus.

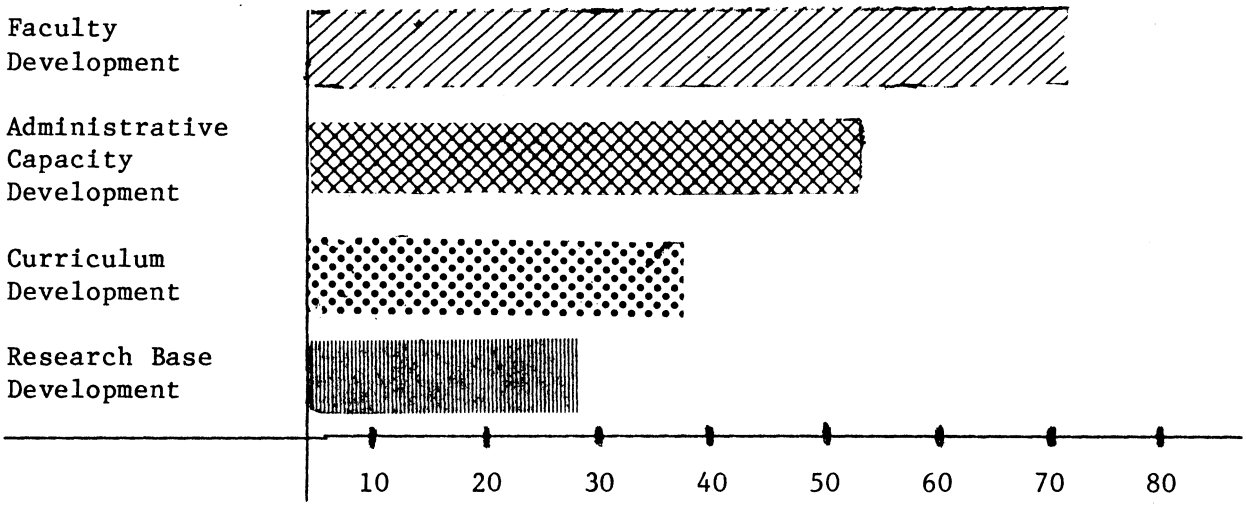
The program has focused on two basic constraints to effective involvement of universities in development work, namely, university commitment to international programs and building cores of international specialists on their campuses. The first set of constraints deals with issues of tenure/promotion of faculty members for international work, the provision of release time and support to undertake related activities, determining priorities in university international programs, and generating support for these programs in their respective states and on their campuses. Several universities had been heavily involved in institution building activities during the 50's and 60's, but had lost interest as AID missions entered other modes of project development in the 70's. The second set of constraints deals mainly with the revitalization of the ranks of university international development faculty. There was a need to bring junior faculty members on board to overcome the "graying of the ranks" phenomenon[2/] which occurred during the 70's as they failed to seek out international careers.

Program Objectives and Related Activities.

All objectives listed by universities in their proposals were classified by the scheme presented below. It represents the way which universities approached the program. Objectives related to faculty development were the most frequently listed type, numbering 72 or 38% of the total. Next in descending order of frequency were objectives categorized under the rubrics

2/ This phenomena has been recently alluded to in articles by Wharton and Flinn. [Wharton, Clifton, "Tomorrow's Development Professionals: Where Will the Future Come From?" BIFAD Occasional Paper #3, Washington, D.C., December, 1981; Flinn, William L., "The Graying of Rural Sociologists in International Development--and Related Social Class Stories." Newsline (September, 1980): 32-35.]

administrative capacity development (20%), curriculum development (20%) and research base development (14%).



Universities define faculty development activities as those which better prepare faculty to work overseas. They include expanding their knowledge base, improving their communication skills, and establishing contacts. Typically, strengthening activities consist of language training, culture orientation, improving extension methods and skills, and increasing numbers of faculty qualified to engage in AID contracts. Both AID and the universities define language training to be a key activity. Four-fifths of the universities provided language training as part of their program. Approximately 800 faculty persons were given an average of 3 semesters of language training each for a total of 2,433 faculty semesters of language training during the first two years of the program. French and Spanish language training were each offered by 29 universities.

Administrative capacity development refers to improving capabilities to manage AID contract activities generally, including the university

strengthening programs. Approximately two-thirds of the universities expanded their administrative capacity by creating new positions and/or reassigning job responsibilities. In addition, nearly three-fourths of the universities set up interdisciplinary advisory councils to facilitate interdisciplinary problem focus activities. Over 30 universities established and/or increased their inter-institutional ties as a result of the program, again with the primary objective of seeking cross-boundary collaborative efforts. These transformations have also made it easier for the universities to provide collective team assistance to solve technical problems overseas.

A substantial amount of activity supported by the program has dealt with internationalizing college curricula. Over two-thirds of the universities have introduced new international courses into their programs. Sixty-eight new courses were discussed in annual reports, and 188 courses were modified to include new international modules. These changes are important to provide more adequate training to foreign students sponsored by AID and to prepare more adequately students to work in AID and related agencies. Several more direct attempts to provide more adequate training were also supported by the program. Eighteen universities added special "non-degree" courses for LDC students and 9 others created special technical courses in agriculture and home economics. Another 17 universities actually brought LDC scholars to their campuses under the program.

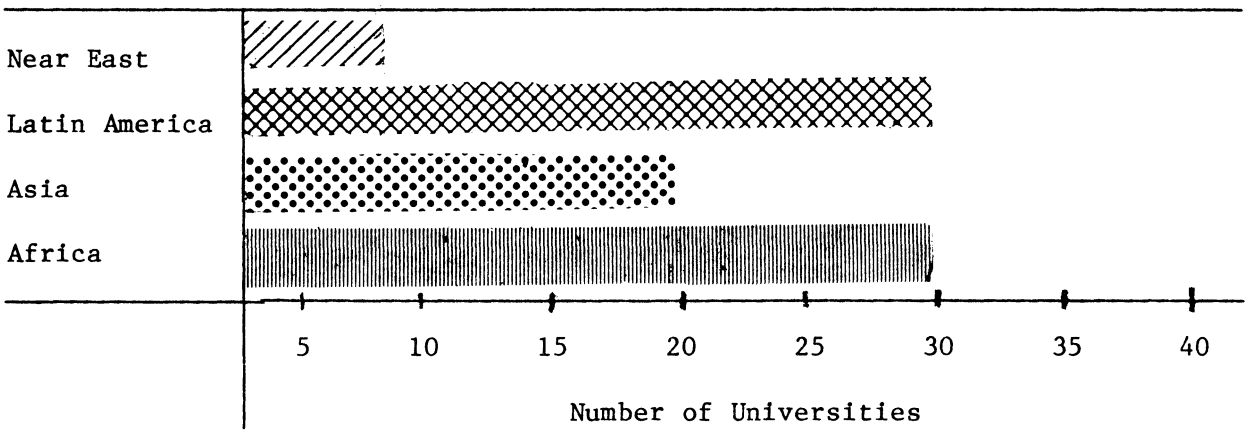
The least common type of activity relates to research base development. Seven universities used program funds to expand their research facilities and to add major research equipment, and several created new international research positions with the funds. Considerable research of development problems was also supported by the program. Much of this occurred on campuses

through providing faculty with release time for this research, library research and graduate student assistance. This research tended to emphasize small farm systems and technology transfer. One hundred travel requests were approved for faculty to conduct research overseas and/or to supervise research of graduate students overseas. This program sponsored-research bears directly on creating new technologies that can be used by AID in their future contract activities.

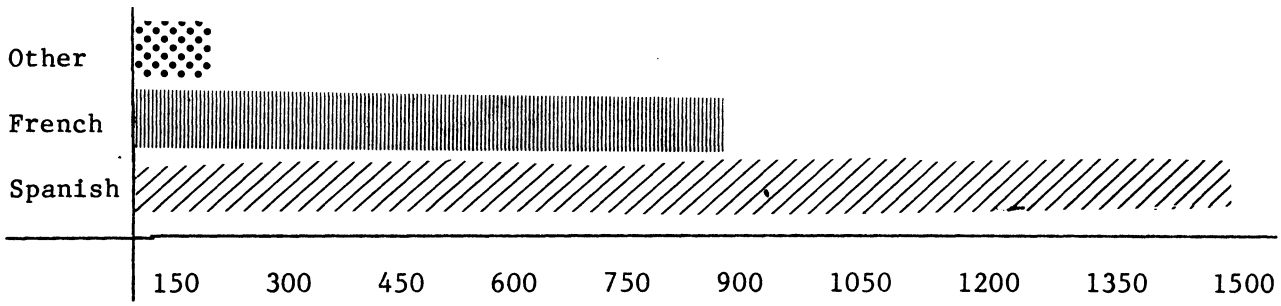
Specialization

Specialization is assessed by appraising the amounts of geographic and subject matter focus that have been introduced into the university programs. As illustrated graphically in the following bar graph, universities intended at program onset to focus primarily on two geographic regions, Africa and Latin America, 32 and 29 universities respectively. Given less priority were Asia (19 universities) and the Near East (8 universities). This pattern is consistent with the prior pattern of international activities of these institutions.

Intended Focus of University Programs



Actual regional focus has varied somewhat from these intentions over the first two years of the program, however. An equal number of universities offered Spanish and French. But the number of faculty/semesters of Spanish exceeded that of French by 74%, which suggests that faculty demand is oriented primarily to Latin America. Other languages received only minor attention.



This orientation to Latin America is also manifest in travel patterns. Sixty-two percent of all person/country visits sponsored by the program were to Latin America while only 14% were to sub-Saharan Africa. Actually, there was greater travel to Asia (131 visits) than to Africa (121 visits).

Most of this travel centered on faculty preparation to undertake development activities. Requests for research oriented travel comprised 46% of the total, with 31% being for faculty research and 15% for graduate student research. Several universities have invested substantially in overseas graduate student thesis and dissertation research. Fifty-two graduate students received funding for overseas travel and research. Faculty advisors have benefited by consulting on the research. The students will eventually be incorporated into the ranks of development specialists, many in the universities themselves. Six percent of the requests were for travel oriented primarily to internationalizing university curricula.

Subject matter specialization is represented numerically in the table below. It represents a classification of 156 program focuses reported by the participating universities in their annual reports. These data demonstrate considerable attention to AID's new directions mandate. Twenty-one universities have defined human nutrition as a priority area; 17 universities have given high priority to learning about farming systems in developing countries;

Subject Matter Focus On The Program

Focus (General Areas)	Number Universities	%
Nutrition	21	43
Farming Systems	17	35
Agricultural Extension/Education	7	14
Technology Transfer	7	14
Women in Development	6	12
Crop Production/Agronomy	19	39
Livestock Production	18	37
Agricultural Policy Analysis/Planning	12	25
Aquaculture/Mariculture	8	16
Rural Development	7	14
Range Management	5	10
Natural Resource Conservation & Management	5	10
Horticulture	4	8
Social Sciences	3	6
Tropical Agriculture	3	6
Institution Building	3	6
Other	11	22

14 universities have focused problems of extending new technologies to farmers (7-education/extension; 7-technology transfer); and 6 universities have specialized in problems relevant to women and development.

In addition, areas from which AID has heavily drawn resources in the past are also receiving considerable attention in the program. They include crops, livestock production, and agricultural policy analyses/planning. Crop production specialization includes rice production, soil fertility and water management. Livestock specialization includes emphases on large and small ruminants, forage use, semen management and diseases and pests.

A few universities committed themselves to specialization in only one area such as Kentucky, which has concentrated on no-tillage farming, and Auburn, which has concentrated on fresh water aquaculture. Most universities elected to specialize in several subject matter areas, believing that they have the capability and faculty interest to provide expertise in several areas.

The Future.

AID recently stated that it was going to focus more sharply on problems of food production and rural development in Africa. It has been noted that 30 Sub-Saharan nations in Africa had negative average annual growth rates in total per capita production from 1969 to 1979.3/ Concern for this continent was clearly expressed at the 1982 regional BIFAD Workshops in Columbus, Ohio, Tucson, Arizona and Baton Rouge, Louisiana. AID has asked that the universities give more attention to building expertise related to their programs in Africa. It is anticipated that universities will respond to this need and use

3/ World Bank Report, Accelerated Development in sub-Saharan Africa: An Agenda for Action, Washington, D.C.: The World Bank, p. 167.

the program to learn more about African history and its cultures. It is also anticipated that they will focus more directly on acquiring expertise that will facilitate building teaching, research and extension capabilities in those countries. This implies giving direct attention to research of constraints to agricultural production, including overseas agricultural research systems and the effectiveness of current extension systems.

Given the current on-campus emphases on interdisciplinary teams to plan, implement and evaluate programs, it is anticipated that more attention will be given to interdisciplinary overseas activities. Other forms of collaboration in providing technical assistance are likely to grow as the universities continue to specialize and identify interdisciplinary cadres for international development.